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The Latitudinal Diversity Gradient: Novel Understanding through Mechanistic Eco-evolutionary Models

Pontarp, Mikael ; Bunnefeld, Lynsey ; Cabral, Juliano Sarmiento ; Etienne, Rampal S ; Fritz, Susanne A ; Gillespie, Rosemary ; Graham, Catherine H ; Hagen, Oskar ; Hartig, Florian ; Huang, Shan ; Jansson, Roland ; Maliet, Odile ; Münkemüller, Tamara ; Pellissier, Loïc ; Rangel, Thiago F ; Storch, David ; Wiegand, Thorsten ; Hurlbert, Allen H

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Title:

**The latitudinal diversity gradient - novel understanding through
mechanistic eco-evolutionary models**

Mikael Pontarp, Department of Evolutionary Biology and Environmental Studies,
University of Zurich, Winterthurerstrasse 190, 8057 Zurich, Switzerland

Lynsey Bunnefeld, Biological & Environmental Sciences, University of Stirling, Stirling
FK9 4LA, Scotland

Juliano Sarmiento Cabral, Ecosystem Modeling, Center for Computational and Theoretical
Biology (CCTB), University of Würzburg, Emil-Fischer-Str. 32, 97074 Würzburg,
Germany

Rampal S. Etienne, Groningen Institute for Evolutionary Life Sciences, University of
Groningen, Box 11103, 9700 CC Groningen, The Netherlands

Susanne A. Fritz, Senckenberg Biodiversity and Climate Centre (BiK-F), Senckenberg
Gesellschaft für Naturforschung, D-60325 Frankfurt & Institute of Ecology, Evolution
and Diversity, Goethe-University, D-60438 Frankfurt

Rosemary Gillespie, Environmental Science, 130 Mulford Hall, University of California,
Berkeley, CA 94720, USA

Catherine H. Graham, Swiss Federal Research Institute WSL, CH-8903 Birmensdorf,
Switzerland

Oskar Hagen, Swiss Federal Research Institute WSL, CH-8903 Birmensdorf, Switzerland
& Landscape Ecology, Institute of Terrestrial Ecosystems, ETH Zürich, CH-8092 Zürich,
Switzerland

Florian Hartig, Theoretical Ecology, University of Regensburg, Universitätsstr. 31, 93053
Regensburg, Germany

Shan Huang, Senckenberg Biodiversity Research Centre, Senckenberganlage 25, 60327,
Frankfurt am Main, Germany

Roland Jansson, Department of Ecology and Environmental Science, Umeå University, 901
87 Umeå, Sweden

Odile Maliet, Institut de biologie de l'Ecole normale supérieure (IBENS), Ecole normale
supérieure, CNRS, INSERM, PSL Research University, 75005 Paris, France

Tamara Münkemüller, Univ. Grenoble Alpes, CNRS, Univ. Savoie Mont Blanc, CNRS,
LECA, Laboratoire d'Écologie Alpine, F-38000 Grenoble, France

Loïc Pellissier, Swiss Federal Research Institute WSL, CH-8903 Birmensdorf, Switzerland
& Landscape Ecology, Institute of Terrestrial Ecosystems, ETH Zürich, CH-8092 Zürich,
Switzerland

Thiago F. Rangel, Department of Ecology, Federal University of Goiás, Campus
Samambaia, Goiânia GO, Brazil. 74690-900.

David Storch, Center for Theoretical Study, Charles University and Czech Academy of
Sciences. Jilská 1, 110 00 Praha 1 & Department of Ecology, Faculty of Science, Charles
University, Viničná 7, 128 44 Praha 2, Czech Republic

Thorsten Wiegand, Dept of Ecological Modeling, Helmholtz Centre for Environmental
Research – UFZ, Permoserstrasse 15, 04318 Leipzig, Germany & German Centre for
Integrative Biodiversity Research (iDiv) Halle-Jena-Leipzig, Leipzig, Germany

Allen H. Hurlbert, Department of Biology and Curriculum in Environment and Ecology,
University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, NC 27599, USA

Correspondence: mikael.pontarp@biol.lu.se (M. Pontarp)

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Abstract

The latitudinal diversity gradient (LDG) is one of the most widely studied patterns in ecology, yet no consensus has been reached about its underlying causes. We argue that the reasons are the verbal nature of existing hypotheses, the failure to mechanistically link interacting ecological and evolutionary processes to the LDG, and the fact that empirical patterns are often consistent with multiple explanations. To address this issue, we synthesize current LDG hypotheses, uncovering their eco-evolutionary mechanisms, hidden assumptions, and commonalities. Furthermore, we propose mechanistic eco-evolutionary modeling and an inferential approach that makes use of geographic, phylogenetic, and trait-based patterns to assess the relative importance of different processes for generating the LDG.

State of the art and calls for novel mechanistic approaches

The increase in species diversity from the poles to the equator, commonly referred to as the latitudinal diversity gradient (LDG), is one of the most pervasive [1, 2] and widely debated biological patterns, with at least 26 listed hypotheses associated with it [3-5]. These hypotheses can be classified into three higher-level categories related to latitudinal variation in **ecological limits** (See Glossary), **diversification rates**, and time for species accumulation (Table 1). Empirical evidence seems compatible with many of these hypotheses. For example, species richness is correlated with purported proxies for ecological limits such as net primary productivity [6-8], diversification rate can vary latitudinally due to gradients in temperature [9, 10], and diversity is greatest in regions where diversification has occurred over a longer period [11-13]. These and similar studies have improved our understanding of the LDG and macroevolutionary patterns in general, but the diffuse support for different hypotheses reveals a lack of consensus and points to challenges in testing and evaluating these hypotheses.

We argue that reconciling the causes of the LDG requires moving beyond verbal chains of logic, which are inherently prone to error with respect to how assumptions result in their predicted effect [14], and towards a more formal and mechanistic framework. Verbal hypotheses often contain hidden assumptions that go untested and lack specificity with respect to the mechanistic underpinning of relevant **ecological** and **evolutionary processes**. Verbal hypotheses also tend to focus on a single driver to predict just one or a few patterns related to that driver. Consequently, these predictions alone may not be sufficient to distinguish competing hypotheses [15, 16]. A more explicit description of the processes underlying all hypotheses will generate a wider range of predictions which can be used to disentangle possibly non-mutually exclusive hypotheses and evaluate the relative importance of these processes.

We, therefore, call for a transformation in the way biologists think about and study the LDG. The classification of hypotheses (Table 1) is an important first step, but it does not resolve the difficulty of identifying and quantifying the relative strength of the processes underlying the LDG. We propose moving towards a mechanistic framework, founded on key processes that describe how individual organisms interact with their biotic and abiotic environments, and how these interactions scale up to result in the LDG and other **secondary biodiversity patterns**. Ultimately, revealing the nature of these **eco-evolutionary processes** will yield more insight than continuing to argue about non-mutually exclusive LDG hypotheses.

Examining the LDG through the lens of mechanistic macroecology

Key processes across levels of biological organization

We recognize four key processes, as defined by [17], that necessarily underpin the LDG and thus should be included as components of any LDG model that aims to capture variation in species richness, abundance, and composition over a spatially and temporally variable

environment: 1) selection, 2) ecological drift, 3) dispersal, and 4) speciation. Selection, drift, and dispersal can all influence the birth, death, and movement of individuals over small spatial and temporal scales. Selection (sensu [17]) encompasses any process that results in the differential survival and reproduction of individuals, based on how **environmental filtering** [18] and biotic interactions select for specific traits. Ecological drift manifests itself via stochastic variation in the births and deaths of individuals. Dispersal of individuals is influenced by the spatial structure of the landscape as well as individual dispersal capabilities and can lead to species colonizing new regions. Each of these individual-level ecological and microevolutionary processes is propagated throughout higher levels of biological organization, resulting in discrete patterns at the level of populations, species, and communities (Figure 1).

Over longer timescales, environmental conditions have fluctuated with glacial/interglacial oscillations, cooler and warmer periods in Earth's history, orogenic events, volcanic activity, and shifts in tectonic plates, all of which can affect diversity dynamics [19-21]. At these spatial and temporal scales selection, ecological drift, and dispersal determine where species or even whole clades are able to persist geographically and how traits evolve. Species that become poorly adapted to the environment or that are poor competitors for resources are expected to have low fitness and ultimately go extinct, reflecting critical eco-evolutionary feedbacks [22, 23]. Speciation becomes especially relevant with increasing temporal and spatial scales. The details of how speciation occurs are complex and the critical question in a LDG context becomes how and why speciation mode or rate varies along geographic gradients. All of the processes described above necessarily interact with each other and with the spatiotemporal environment, resulting in the broad range of geographic and phylogenetic biodiversity patterns that we observe today. As highlighted below, these processes can help us compare and disentangle LDG hypotheses.

129

130 **Classical LDG hypotheses revisited**

131 Characterizing LDG hypotheses based on the key processes described above helps to clarify
132 the internal logic of those hypotheses, and highlights how they differ. All hypotheses invoke
133 an explicit driver or condition that varies latitudinally (Figure 1), but considering the
134 processes related to this driver, often below the level of biological organization at which the
135 hypothesis was formulated, can reveal previously unrecognized assumptions and predictions.
136 Below we discuss four examples, chosen to represent hypotheses invoking variation in limits,
137 rates, and time. These examples may also serve as a guide for better understanding other
138 hypotheses.

139

140 *The more individuals hypothesis*

141 The “more individuals hypothesis” invokes latitudinal variation in ecological limits and a
142 positive relationship between the number of species and resource availability [24]. If
143 resources are finite and a zero-sum constraint on the total amount of biomass or individuals
144 applies, any increase in diversity over time results in a decrease in average biomass or
145 abundance per species. Extinction rates will thus be diversity-dependent and richness will be
146 regulated around some equilibrium value that scales with the total number of individuals that
147 can be supported [24, 25]. This hypothesis implicitly invokes interspecific competition and
148 the resultant allocation of resources across species (Table 1). The argument does not invoke
149 selection (Fig. 1) and can be applied equally to ecologically neutral or non-neutral species. An
150 important and unstated assumption is that the response of the biota to environmental change is
151 fast enough that richness is at equilibrium across the latitudinal gradient.

152

153 *The seasonality hypothesis*

The seasonality hypothesis argues that the within-year environmental stability of the tropics results in either greater diversification rates or higher ecological limits via increased niche packing (Table 1 and Fig. 1). The first argument suggests that in the less seasonal tropics, organisms experience a smaller range of conditions and hence evolve narrower thermal niches compared to the temperate zone. The idea that “mountain passes are higher in the tropics” [26] suggests that dispersal barriers were effectively greater there, increasing the chance of population divergence and allopatric speciation [27, 28]. Selection thus dictates the environmental conditions that a species can tolerate, but it is speciation rate that varies with latitude and ultimately generates the LDG. The second version of the seasonality hypothesis suggests that stability-driven specialization promotes intense niche packing, and hence more species can coexist in the tropics [29, 30]. Species are then hypothesized to evolve narrower resource breadths rather than narrow thermal niches, assuming that resources are limited and that diversity actually emerges from niche packing [29] (Table 1, Figure 1). Implicit in both hypotheses is a performance tradeoff between specialists and generalists, such that specialists evolve and outcompete generalists in aseasonal environments.

The temperature-dependent speciation rates hypothesis

The hypothesis that higher temperature elevates evolutionary rates has been used to explain global diversity patterns in both land and sea [31, 32]. One version of the hypothesis [33] follows from the metabolic theory of ecology [34], stating that temperature positively affects all biological rates including mutation rates, which can lead to speciation and ultimately diversity accumulation. This assumes that speciation rates directly follow from mutation rates, which may be problematic if other factors (e.g. existence of geographic barriers, assortative mating) are limiting speciation. The hypothesis makes no specific predictions regarding selection or dispersal. Importantly, this hypothesis could be invoked in either an equilibrium or non-equilibrium world. In a non-equilibrium world, speciation rates alone could explain

variation in richness between regions if all regions were similarly old, and extinction rates were equal across regions [10]. In an equilibrium world, increased speciation rates in the tropics can lead to higher equilibrium richness, as in Hubbell [35] neutral model of biodiversity.

The tropical niche conservatism hypothesis

The tropical **niche conservatism** hypothesis [36, 37] states that diversity is higher in the tropics because of the infrequency of colonisations of the cooler temperate zone by a tropical ancestor due to strongly conserved thermal niches and tropical origins of most taxa, and hence the longer time available for diversification in the tropics. The hypothesis assumes that, barring major disturbances or climatic shifts, species richness will continue to increase unbounded over time [37]. This hypothesis has only ever been formulated at the species level, and yet it inherently implies a particular set of rules by which individuals interact with the environment and each other. Selection by the environment is by definition strong, with individuals unable to survive and reproduce under conditions different from their optima, and evolution of a new optimum is rare. Less obvious are the implications of the hypothesis for resource competition between individuals. Unbounded, or diversity-independent, diversification is only possible in the absence of an overarching zero-sum constraint [25]. The absence of such a constraint implies that while the population size of a species might be affected by the fit between the environment and environmental performance traits, it is independent of the population sizes of potential competitors and of interspecific competition more broadly.

The utility of a mechanistic framework

The examples presented above illustrate three insights gained by adopting a generalized eco-evolutionary framework. First, many of the fundamental rules by which organisms are

assumed to interact with each other and with their environment will be qualitatively similar regardless of LDG hypothesis. For example, individual survival and reproduction must be functions of how well adapted the individuals are to their environment relative to their intra- and interspecific competitors. Second, latitudinal differences in ecological limits, diversification rates, and time for diversification may emerge via different **mechanisms** integrated into the same framework. For example, diversification rates may be higher due to the temperature-dependence of mutation rates [9, 38] or due to the increased reproductive isolation in aseasonal environments [27, 39]. Third, although each hypothesis invokes a primary driver or process, we have shown that these hypotheses also make unstated assumptions about other processes and mechanisms which need to be considered in concert to fully understand the emergence of the LDG and other macroecological and macroevolutionary patterns.

Mechanistic eco-evolutionary models as a quantitative tool for understanding LDG patterns

The mechanistic framing of processes that underpin the LDG naturally facilitates the translation from heuristic thinking to mechanistic eco-evolutionary models (Box 1). We believe that building these models will be essential to making progress on the LDG and biodiversity patterns in general because they allow quantitative analyses and predictions of the various secondary patterns. Secondary patterns are key for more powerful inference about the origin of species richness patterns. Below we provide concrete examples of components of a mechanistic LDG model and associated patterns followed by a discussion about how to use such a model for inference with the available data.

Mechanistic models for studying the LDG

231 *The spatiotemporal environmental template*

232 The basic driver of an LDG model is the spatiotemporal environmental template. It can be
233 viewed as the theater in which the eco-evolutionary play unfolds, and the spatiotemporal
234 variation in that template (Earth's climatic, geologic, and tectonic history) may be as critical
235 to emergent diversity patterns as the mechanisms and processes governing how organisms
236 interact and evolve [40-42]. Explaining the LDG with eco-evolutionary **simulation models**,
237 therefore, benefits from suitable paleoenvironmental reconstructions [43] and the integration
238 of global data sets on continental topography and paleoshorelines [44, 45].

239

240 *Trait-based local population dynamics*

241 Traits are essential for individual survival and reproduction (fitness) and mechanistic models
242 that include interactions of organismal traits and the abiotic and biotic environment, below the
243 level of species (i.e. at the individual, population or metapopulation level), is thus
244 appropriate. Local population dynamics can, for example be assumed to be trait-dependent
245 [46, 47]. One set of traits might determine an organism's fitness dictated by the abiotic
246 environment, a different set of traits may influence relative fitness associated with the suite of
247 potential competitors present at any point in time [48]. Such a modeling approach requires
248 making basic assumptions that facilitate the link between environmental conditions, available
249 resources, and ecological interactions, and population dynamics then emerge from those
250 assumptions.

251

252 *Spatial and eco-evolutionary metacommunity dynamics*

253 For modeling eco-evolutionary metacommunity dynamics, trait-based models need to be
254 implemented in a larger spatial context, allowing individuals to disperse over geographically
255 relevant extents. Metacommunity dynamics will arise from eco-evolutionary feedbacks
256 between dispersing individuals and recipient communities within the context of the

spatiotemporal template [49]. Evolutionary dynamics result from natural selection by both abiotic and biotic conditions, ecological drift, dispersal, and speciation. Speciation can be modeled using a phenomenological approach or more complex allele-based models in which phenotypic trait variability is completely or partially heritable and the accumulation of genetic incompatibilities may drive differentiation of daughter species (Box 2). Each of these modeling components is necessary for capturing the suite of processes invoked by LDG hypotheses (Box 1), they can be modeled with varying degrees of complexity and they come with a set of low-level assumptions that need to be clearly stated (Box 2).

Understanding patterns and inferring processes

Above we have shown that a mechanistic mindset is useful to better understand the internal logic and consequences of the different hypotheses, as well as the interactions among them. In addition, a **mechanistic model** can clarify the biodiversity patterns expected under different combinations of spatiotemporal environmental templates, biotic interactions, and other eco-evolutionary rules [e.g. 16, 48, 50]. This ability to simulate very different worldviews of how the LDG arises (e.g., “ecological limits”, “niche conservatism”, etc.) within the same comparative framework is a critical element of our approach as different types of processes modeled with varying degrees of mechanistic detail can be explored and contrasted.

Ultimately, we need mechanistic models to understand the details of the emerging eco-evolutionary patterns at a sufficient resolution to be able to quantitatively confront them with data. The more secondary patterns (e.g. phylogenies, species ranges, distributions of abundance or functional traits) that can be modeled, the greater the diagnostic power of the model for exploring parameter space and for inferring the strength and interactions of different processes. The examination of these patterns will also point to the type of data that will be most valuable for reliable inference of a given process [51].

While we believe that confronting different model scenarios with multiple observed patterns (described in Box 3) is the only way to make progress in understanding the LDG, we realize that substantial conceptual, statistical, and computational challenges are associated with this task [52]. The complexity of the suggested models often makes it difficult to understand the consequences of the underlying assumptions. Ways of overcoming such challenges are to build on known ecological models (e.g. Lotka-Volterra equations) and evolutionary theory (e.g. Adaptive Dynamics theory) that has been studied extensively. The models should also be built and analyzed in a sequential manner of increased complexity to shed light on the consequences of the key model assumptions and their interactions. While it is not our aim to detail these and other methodological challenges here, we nevertheless highlight two basic inferential approaches that seem particularly promising. First, qualitative matching of multiple patterns gives an indication of whether the modeled processes can produce the patterns that we observe [15, 25, 41, 53]. Pattern matching is conceptually straightforward and easily allows combining the LDG with multiple observed secondary patterns to compare alternative model or parameter choices. Second, models like the ones suggested above can be fitted to a range of patterns in data using simulation-based methods such as **Approximate Bayesian Computation** [54-57] or synthetic likelihood [58, 59]. Regardless of which inferential approach is used, any empirical patterns that a model is unable to reproduce can be instructive in the iterative process of model improvement.

Concluding remarks

Progress in understanding the processes that underlie LDG patterns and associated diversity patterns has been slow (see also Outstanding Questions). We repeat calls for a transition in biodiversity research, translating verbal models into a unified mechanistic framework that can be implemented in quantitative computer simulations [52, 53, 60]. In such a framework,

researchers can focus on measuring and inferring the ecological and evolutionary processes that govern the interaction of organisms with each other and their environment in time and space, which must ultimately underpin the LDG. By applying this framework, hidden assumptions in current hypotheses are exposed, revealing how the hypotheses relate to each other and how they might be distinguished (Table 1, Figure 1). More importantly, this framework is a roadmap for flexible eco-evolutionary simulation models (Box 1-2) that can generate a rich set of empirical patterns from the same underlying processes. We believe that this ability to produce multiple diagnostic patterns will be crucial for inference (Box 3), and ultimately for converting the available data into new knowledge about macroecology and macroevolution. Challenges associated with model construction and the way models are confronted with data will arise, but such challenges are inherent and inevitable to all sciences that deal with complex systems. We are confident that, with time, these challenges can be addressed, and models combining realistic spatiotemporal environmental templates with trait based eco-evolutionary implementation under an iterative procedure of model design, evaluation and improvement, will advance our understanding and quantitative inference of the processes underlying the LDG.

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